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# An Empirical Study Which Measures Principals and Teachers in Their Attitudes Toward, and Their Perceptions of the Leadership Dimensions of Initiating Structure and Consideration

Joseph Renick Chmeleck

Eastern Illinois University

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AN EMPIRICAL STUDY WHICH MEASURES PRINCIPALS AND TEACHERS IN THEIR ATTITUDES TOWARD, AND THEIR PERCEPTIONS OF THE LEADERSHIP DIMENSIONS OF INITIATING STRUCTURE AND CONSIDERATION (TITLE)

BY

JOSEPH RENICK CHMELECK

#### **THESIS**

SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF

MASTER OF ARTS

IN THE GRADUATE SCHOOL, EASTERN !LLINOIS UNIVERSITY CHARLESTON, ILLINOIS

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#### CHAPTER I

#### INTRODUCTION

Leadership is an inherent characteristic of all organized effort.

It was not until recently, though, that empirical research has been conducted in the field of leadership. This present volume will add to that research by exploring the perceptions of teachers and principals in their observations of the actual state of leadership behavior in relation to what they consider to be an ideal leader behavior. Through a broader understanding of these perceptions, we will add our small part to an improvement of our schools and a better understanding of the administrative role.

#### The Problem

Education can be considered a main division of leadership theory.

Though education holds a prominent position, there has been little empirical testing done in educational settings. Halpin, one of the few researchers in this area, states that those people in administrative positions have "welcomed research findings on leadership." Halpin further states that "We have found ourselves drawing heavily upon insights into administration derived from other disciplines." (Halpin, 1966)

In some situations this borrowing is legitimate, for leadership is a characteristic of all organized effort. In other situations this will not hold true. A reason for the refutation of the above generalization is what Halpin considers to be the present state of administrative turmoil

in education today. This turnoil is a result of the changeover from somewhat of an autocratic type leadership to a human relations type leadership. Halpin questions the degree of this change through his analogy "that in our enthusiasm for this new approach have we perhaps swung the pendulum too far?" (Halpin, 1966) He further states that "in applying 'human relation' principles we must insure that we do not overlook the responsibility imposed upon every leader by the institutional realities of the formal institution of which he is a part." These responsibilities are placed upon principals from boards of education, superintendents of schools, and the general public. This alone places educational administration in a unique position apart from business and/or government. Going a step further, a principal has the responsibility for the education received by every child in his school. This education is affected by the educational programs, such as selecting and supervising teachers; by the school-community relationships; and by the constant expansion of knowledge and techniques. These variables place educational administration in a position as a separate and unique entity. Due to this uniqueness, education must put forth an effort toward research in its own field. This testing, and others both past and present, will provide a degree of statistical probability where now only untested inferences exist.

The need for empirical study in educational settings is met by
this thesis which tests the difference, if any, in the Likert-Type Scale
scores of principals and teachers in their attitude toward, and their
perception of, the existence of the dispensation of Consideration and
the Initiation of Structure.

#### Review of Literature

For the purpose of the investigation, this review succinctly dealt with three of the four prominent approaches to leadership. These three approaches are the University of Michigan Studies, Idiosyncrasy Credit Theory, and Social Exchange Theory:

The fourth, or remaining, prominent approach to leadership, the Ohio State Studies was reviewed in depth. In addition, this review of literature covered in detail the Ohio State Studies which had been conducted in educational settings. This review revealed that very little research had been conducted at the elementary level of education. Thus the absence of empirical research employing the Ohio State leadership dimensions of Initiating Structure and Consideration produced an area of relatively untouched ground from which the author chose a small portion to explore.

### Three Approaches to Leadership

#### University of Michigan

In 1947 the Survey Research Center at the University of Michigan began a series of studies concerning leadership. The work at the Survey Research Center was "concerned with factors in small groups--particularly in foremen behavior leading to high levels of productivity as well as high levels of individual satisfaction within these groups." (Jacobs, 1970)

The methodology employed was largely of the survey type. This survey methodology has been described as giving "extensive and thorough coverage at the individual member level throughout the organizations

studied. (Jacobs, 1970) Jacobs further described the methodology as being "well suited to the study of relationships between motivation, attitudes, and morale on one hand, and concrete measures of performance on the other." (Jacobs, 1970)

The first study conducted by the Survey Research Center entitled,
"Productivity, Supervision, and Morale in an Office Situation" by Katz,
Maccoby, and Morse in 1950 "was conducted in a life insurance company,
and it consisted of a systematic comparison of work groups which had
been demonstrated to differ significantly in productivity as measured
by the accounting procedures of the company. The analysis plan was to
determine what supervisory practices were associated with high and low
levels of satisfaction, and with high and low levels of productivity."

(Kahn, 1960)

The differences found in supervisory actions when compared to production are summarized as follows:

"High-producing supervisors were found to spend more time in actual supervisory activities, and less time in performing tasks similar to those done by their subordinates. They were supervised less closely, and were themselves less closely supervised by their own managers. They were judged by coders who read their interviews to be more employee-centered in their attitudes. The employees of high-producing supervisors were more likely to feel that their supervisors would defend their interests rather than those of management, if such a choice had to be made." (Kahn, 1960)

Due to the complexity and nebulosity of certain parts of this research a number of unanswered questions arose.

"One of these questions was the central issue around which this paper has been written: 'Is there a relationship between satisfaction and productivity?' Other major questions included: 'What is the cause and effect

relationship underlying the correlations between the supervisor's tendency to delegate and the productivity of employees?' More specifically: 'Does the granting of increased responsibility and autonomy by the supervisor produce higher motivation on the part of the employee, with subsequent gains in productivity?' Or, alternately: "Does the employee who demonstrates high productivity receive, as a consequence of that productivity, a more general and less detailed kind of supervision from his immediate superior?'

Another question requiring solution was the nature and reality of the dimension which had been identified in the insurance company study as "employee-centered-production-centered.' Was a supervisor who tended to be production-centered necessarily less sensitive and less oriented to employee needs? Might not a supervisor be both employee-centered and production-centered?

Finally, the study in the insurance company left us with the question of how to interpret the single area of satisfaction which seemed to relate to productivity-satisfaction with the work group. Was the prideful response of high-producing work groups a measure of the spirit and motivation which caused their higher productivity, or were the members of these high-producing groups merely reporting their accurate perception? Their groups were in fact better than others when it came to getting the job done." (Kahn, 1960)

In an attempt to answer some of the above mentioned questions, and to verify some of the previous findings through testing in a totally different situation, Daniel Katz, Nathan Macoby, Gerald Gurin, and Lucretia G. Floor embarked on a study entitled "Productivity, Supervision and Morale Among Railroad Workers." The specific objectives of the research were as follows:

- \*1. To discover the relationship between supervisory attitudes and behavior, and group productivity among section gangs on a railroad.
- 2. To discover the relationship between productivity and worker morale in this situation.

3. To compare the findings from this study with those that emerged from an earlier investigation of clerical workers in an insurance company." (Katz et al., 1951)

To test these objectives scores were derived which were "based on ratings by higher-level supervisors. Thirty-six section gangs of high productivity were matched with thirty-six gangs of low productivity, where each gang in a pair worked under conditions of equal difficulty with respect to terrain, number of tracks, and so on. The research methodology called for all workers in all section gangs to be interviewed, together with their foremen." (Jacobs, 1970)

Katz et al. concluded the following:

"The successful supervisor is successful, because he has a different concept of his role and responsibilities, a different set of attitudes toward his employees, and a different approach to people and to their motivation on the job. The specific things which he does and does not do on the job should be understood as reflections of these basic differences between the high and low producing supervisors, rather than as easy means to increased production.

The high producing supervisor appears to regard the attainment of productivity as a problem in motivation and sees his role primarily as one of motivating workers to achieve a goal, of creating conditions under which the goal can be reached. He differentiates his role clearly from that of the workers themselves; he clearly perceives and accepts the responsibilities of leadership. He spends a larger proportion of his time in actual supervision. Thus, the practice of working along with the men, doing what they do, rather than concentrating on supervisory and planning activities, is typical of the high. Similarly, the supervisor who sees productivity exclusively in "machine" terms of work, flow, quotas, and standards is likely to be among the leaders of the lower producers. The high producing supervisor sees the job in terms of the employees' needs and aspirations; he is employee-oriented, but does not abdicate the leadership position. There are other findings which add to the picture of the successful supervisor who bears a supportive relationship to the people in his work group. His men report that he takes a personal interest in them and that he behaves in an understanding, non-punitive fashion when they encounter problems on the job. They also report that their foremen is helpful in training them for better jobs.

In stressing the supervisory determinants of productivity, the results of this research corroborate many of the findings obtained in the earlier study of clerical workers. Replication of the earlier findings in such a drastically different work situation builds toward a group of related research-based generalizations about interpersonal relations in organizations and about their implications for organizational effectiveness. (Katz et al., 1951)

The generalizations concerning findings in different work situations, which are consistent in the two situations, were as follows:

- \*1. There is a direct relationship between section productivity and the assumption of a leader-ship role by the supervisor.
  - 2. There is a direct relationship between section productivity and the employee-orientation of the supervisor.
  - 3. There tends to be an inverse relationship between section productivity and the supervisor's feeling of pressure from above (not statistically significant in either study.
  - 4. There is a direct relationship between section productivity and the first-line supervisor's feeling of autonomy with relation to higher-level supervision (not statistically significant in the railroad study).
  - 5. There is a direct relationship between section productivity and the employees' evaluations of their work groups (not statistically significant in the railroad study).
  - 6. There tends to be an inverse relationship between section productivity and employee intrinsic job satisfaction (not statistically significant in the clerical study). (Katz et al., 1951)

The studies mentioned here, plus others, carried out by the Survey Research Center, which tested the relationship between morale and productivity failed to isolate "the use of satisfaction or morale indexes as variables intervening between supervisory and organizational characteristics on the one hand, and productivity on the other". (Kahn, 1960)

The Survey Research Center did isolate four general factors which were significantly related to productivity. The four were:

- The Differentiation of Supervisory Role. Effective foremen engaged, in unique functions which they alone could perform, leaving straight production work to their subordinates.
  - 2. Closeness of Supervision. More effective foremen supervise less closely, apparently giving more freedom to their employees with regard to their pace and approach to the accomplishment of job assignments, as a way of increasing their motivation. They apparently allowed more worker participation in decisions about his own job as well.
  - 3. Employee Orientation. More effective foremen had a greater interest in work group members as individual human beings, rather than as tools for the accomplishment of the job . . .
  - 4. Group Relationships. While there is no general relationship between morale and productivity, it is probably that satisfaction with the work group might influence other criteria, such as turnover and unauthorized absence. (Cohesion within the work group has an impact on productivity only if the foreman can successfully influence the standards of highly cohesive groups) " (Jacobs, 1970)

## Idiosymcrasy Credit Theory

The Survey Research Center was concerned with leaders in a formally designated position. Research on leadership which considered reasons for leaders emerging from groups began with the Idiosyncrasy Credit Theory.

One of the first avenues researchers, concerned with the emergence of leaders, chose was the relationship between leaders, followers, and friends.

"In one study (Hollander and Webb, 1955) a study was made of peer nominations on three topics: friendship, perceived value as follower, and perceived value as leader. This study was specifically designed to test whether followership and leadership are actually opposites. Subjects were naval cadets in their last week of training. Each cadet was asked to assume that he was assigned to a special unit with an undisclosed mission. He was then asked to name the three persons, in order, from his unit whom he considered best qualified to lead the unit, and, similarly, the three least qualified. On the followership form, he was asked to assume that he was the leader of the unit, and to select the three men from his section whom he would most like to have in his unit, and the three whom he would least want. Each cadet was asked to name three other cadets from his section whom he considered his best friends." (Jacobs, 1970)

An analysis of the data accumulated in this study provided the following information:

- \*1. There is a very high relationship (.92) between leadership and followership.
- 2. The relationship between friendship and either followership (.55) or leadership (.47) is not nearly as strong."

"These findings show clearly that the more desired followers tend to be at the upper end of the distribution of desired leaders. Leaders and highly preferred followers are the same people. Further, the choice of leader or follower is not determined by friendship choice." (Jacobs, 1970)

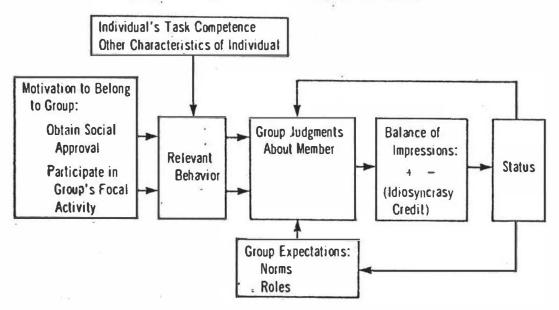
Interpreting the above named findings, Hollander conjectured that

"the underlying basis for choice as either leader or follower is indi
vidual competence at group tasks. When group members perceive that a

given member has competence, he is esteemed by them and, other things being equal, acquires status in the group. These and similar findings have led to the development of an important theoretical approach to understanding how status develops within group structures." (Jacobs, 1970)

A summary of the research findings mentioned above is provided by Jacobs through the use of the following illustration:

## Variables Underlying Development of Idiosyncrasy Credit



"The material on idiosyncratic behavior and status is a liberal interpretation of the original model; some aspects have been omitted for clarity of presentation." (Jacobs, 1970)

The above illustration provided information consistent with the prior assumption of Hollander concerning task competence as a determinate in the emergence of a leader. Follow-up research, though, added determinates not mentioned by Hollander. These determinates were summarized as follows:

"A member's behavior while in the group is determined partly by his competence at the kind of activity on which the group is concentrating and partly by his other characteristics, such as personality. The key element of this model is that other group members continually make evaluative judgements about the adequacy of his behavior. These judgments of adequacy are based, to a major extent, on whether his behavior has conformed to their expectations of what it should have been.

Two kinds of expectations exist. One consists of norms, which are expectations held by each group member for all other group members. For example, most groups have a norm (set of general expectations) which limits the amount of negative emotional behavior that will be tolerated between group members; a group member who exceeds this limit is likely to be punished. The second kind of expectation consists of roles, specific either to individuals or to defined positions in the group. For example, the group leader is expected, among other things, to represent his group well to other groups. Group members need to feel proud of their leader, and therefore expect him to behave in a way that will justify their pride. If he does not, he will be less well accepted and respected as a leader.

To the extent that a group member conforms to expectations, and contributes toward the accomplishment of the group's goal, the group's judgments about him will be positive. To the extent this is not true, they will be negative. According to this theory, each group member accumulates a balance, which is termed idiosyncrasy credit (Hollander, 1956)\* (Jacobs, 1970)

Idiosyncrasy Credit Theory involves a process of continual evaluation.

This evaluation produces an accumulation of either a positive or negative balance for members of the group. The accumulation of a positive balance allows a group member to "vary his behavior from the group's expectations to some degree, without apparent penalty. This is particularly true when his deviations violate relatively noncritical norms." (Jacobs, 1970) The deviations in behavior are tolerated only to a certain point though. "A leader's peculiarities, or idiosyncrasies, are tolerated by his followers

only as long as they themselves do not incur a resulting cost." (Jacobs, 1970)

Therefore, according to the Idiosyncrasy Credit Theory, group members allocate rewards when successful and tolerate deviance on the part of the leader when successful. When failure results, though, the group members punish the leader often times by a removal of his status or his leadership position.

#### Social Exchange Theory

The theories brought out by the Idiosyncrasy Credit Theory are comprehensive in their coverage of successful groups, but lacked sufficiently to explain factors of unsuccessful groups. Consequently, a need for a more comprehensive approach, which would account for group failures, arose. This need was met by the Social Exchange Theory.

The central question in the Social Exchange Theory was why would "a group member subordinate himself to someone of a higher status?"

(Jacobs, 1970) Homans, one of the first to propose an answer to the above question stated:

"Social behavior is an exchange of goods, material goods but also non-material ones, such as the symbols of approval or prestige. Persons that give much to others try to get much from them, and persons that get much from others are under pressure to give much to them. This process of influence tends to work out at equilibrium to a balance in the exchanges. For a person engaged in exchange, what he gives may be a cost to him, just as what he gets may be a reward, and his behavior changes less as profit, that is, reward less cost, tends to a maximum. only does he seek a maximum for himself, but he tries to see to it that no one in his group makes more profit than he does. The cost and the value of what he gives and of what he gets vary with the quantity of what he gives and gets. (Homans, 1958)

Two main points arose from the findings of Homans. These were:

(1) Social behavior is an exchange process between persons of material and non-material goods, and (2) "Social Exchange Theory . . . proposes to regard social behavior in terms of the relative costs and benefits to participants, under the assumption that each individual seeks to maximize his benefits and to reduce his costs." (Jacobs, 1970)

These findings, when applied with a focus toward leadership, produced information which helps fulfill the need for a more comprehensive approach to leadership. Hollander and Julian stated:

"In social exchange terms, the person in the role of leader who fulfills expectations and achieves group goals provides rewards for others which are reciprocated in the form of status, esteem, and heightened influence. Because leadership embodies a two-way influence relationship, recipients of influence in return, that is, by making demands on the leader. The very sustenance of the relationship depends upon some yielding to influence on both sides." (Hollander and Julian, 1969)

Viewing leadership according to the dimensions of the Social Exchange
Theory filled the void left by the Idiosyncrasy Credit Theory concerning
group failure. An analysis of this is provided by Jacobs. He stated:

"Under conditions of failure, if the leader has conformed well to what was expected of him, and the group's failure can be attributed to chance or uncontrollable circumstances, he apparently is not particularly blamed for the group's failure, and may retain his influence within the group. In contrast, when the leader has behaved at variance with group members' expectations or with "the rules of the game," and group members can reasonably blame the group's failure on his particular failure to conform, then there apparently is a substantial negative reaction toward him. It probably is in proportion to the benefits they gave him, such as esteem and status, which he did not fairly reciprocate in guiding the group toward success.

The extent of this negative reaction is probably in proportion to either (a) the group's judgment of inequity in the exchange value of the status they accorded the leader in comparison with the returns he provided the group, or (b) their estimate of the value of the benefits they would have achieved had the leader not violated norms or role expectations. If it is the latter, then a ready explanation exists for the extreme reaction that can exist against a leader who, through nonconformity, has cost the group members a highly desired benefit or reward.

In all probability, both processes are operative, the question of which is the more important in a given situation being based on group members' judgments as to the effort expended by the leader for the group. If this judgment is high, reactions toward the unsuccessful leader probably are based more on an evaluation of the degree of inequity in the exchange, and will not tend to be extreme, though replacement of the leader (or non-support) may eventually occur.

Non-conformity, however, is a different matter. It tends to be seen as behavior that serves selfish motives. Group members may therefore judge that a non-conforming leader has put his own interests ahead of those of the group. When this results in group failure, with attendant costs to themselves, reactions against the leader can become extreme. They will not be nearly as extreme, and may not even be negative, when the leader continues to produce success, because in this case the group members continue to receive the rewards of group success—that is, the leader has still kept his part of the "bargain."

This suggests the need for a small (but crucial) change in or departure from, idiosyncrasy theory. The implication is that the judgments of group members about their leaders and one another are made in terms of the criterion of successful accomplishment of group goals, weighted by their estimate of the value of those goals to themselves, and perhaps secondarily by the degree of status the leader actually presumed for himself in relation to other members of the group. In conformity to idiosyncrasy theory, these evaluations are presumed to be based at least in part on social learning that has occurred at a prior time, which has led to the development of general expectations not only for what leaders can

and should do, but also for what is fair exchange for that behavior." (Jacobs, 1970)

The analysis of the Social Exchange Theory, in regard to its filling the void of not explaining group failure, touched upon numerous leader—ship principles. In a more specific form, these principles were as follows:

- Social exchange behavior is derived from the fundamental learned need to experience the presence of others, and to obtain their approval.
- 2. The most basic form of social exchange behavior consists of behaviors that reward others in some way, and the most elementary of these are behaviors that indicate approval.
- 3. Derived from the exchange process, at an early time, is the expectation that rewards will accrue from benefits provided, that is, that benefits or "favors" will be reciprocated.
- 4. There is a principle of marginal return in which a little of a scarce benefit will offset a lot of a benefit that is not scarce, and in which providing more of a type of benefit of which a lot already exists is not very rewarding.
- 5. There is a strong tendency to get the most one can for the benefits he provides in return, that is, to maximize the benefits/cost ratio.
- 6. A superior bargaining position, particularly stemming from the ability to command scarce or uniquely desirable resources, is fundamental to the concept of power and the ability to influence others.
- 7. While power over others can be obtained by coercion, it is not stable and does not satisfy the same needs as that obtained by positive means, and this fact tends to be learned during the socialization process.

- 8. Stable group leadership consists of an established social exchange process between leader and group members, in which the leader makes unique and valuable contributions to the attainment of group goals, and in turn, is accorded unique status and esteem by group members. This is an exchange that is viewed by both sides as equitable, that is, a "fair exchange." However, in order for these unique assets to produce leadership status (a position of influence or power within the group), four conditions must be met:
  - (1) The group members cannot easily do without the benefit the leader provides.
  - (2) They cannot obtain it elsewhere, or from someone else.
  - (3) They cannot force the leader to provide the benefit.
  - (4) They cannot reciprocate equally, "in kind."
- 9. Stable group leadership probably cannot exist in the absence of agreed-upon group goals, because, lacking such goals, it is difficult to conceive how a group member could contribute uniquely to the group. Note, however, that popularity can be achieved under such conditions, but that popularity can be achieved under such conditions, but that popularity and leadership are not the same thing. (Hollander and Webb)
- 10. Group success is a crucial factor in determing whether the leader will retain his influence within the group, because facilitating attainment of group goals is the leader's main reason for existing, and the main benefit he can offer the group in exchange for the status they give him. Under conditions of group failure, leader rejection is highly likely when he is seen either as not having tried to satisfy his own personal needs at the cost of satisfaction of the group's needs.

#### Summary

The present selected review touched upon a wide range of issues.

It is by no means exhaustive in providing details concerning research on leadership. This review did, however, serve two purposes. First, this review summarized the main points of the current state of leadership research, and secondly, provided information which, when analyzed, accounted for the exclusion of the University of Michigan Studies, the Idiosyncrasy Credit Theory, and the Social Exchange Theory.

The methodology employed in the formulation of the theories eminating from the Michigan State Studies was not employed in this thesis, for Michigan State used the criteria of productitivity as a criteria in an industrial setting may be quite specific and easily attainable.

In education settings, the setting of this present thesis, productivity per se has no applicability. Due to this non-applicability the Michigan State Studies were eliminated from consideration.

The Idiosyncrasy Credit Theory and the Social Theory were largely concerned with the emergence of a leader from a work group. The educational settings empirically tested in this thesis had a formally designated leader, the principal, with all the responsibilities and authority of that position. The author, in an attempt to reach a higher degree of reality, took into consideration the authority and responsibility vested in the principal. The taking of the formal positioning of the principal into consideration eliminated the Idiosyncrasy Credit Theory and the Social Exchange Theory as research guidelines.

A second rationale which accounted for the elimination of the

Idiosyncrasy Credit Theory and the Social Exchange Theory evolved around

the goals set forth by the schools concerning problems. The duration of time during a school year posed problems, for inevitably problems will arise. These problems, most often unpredictable, did not allow for a prior agreement upon the actions that would be taken. Therefore, there were no agreed upon goals in these situations. These same situations imposed pressures upon principals from parents and/or superiors which were not felt by the teachers. The pressures felt by the principals and the uniqueness of certain situations prohibited predictability. Thus, the most that can be achieved in so far as agreed upon group goals, an intrinsic part of both the Idiosyncrasy Credit Theory and the Social Exchange Theory, was a nebulous set of quidelines.

The preceeding summation and analysis led to the use of the theories and methodology employed in the Ohio State Studies. Throughout the remainder of this chapter positive reasons will be discussed concerning the use of theories and methodology which have been employed by the Ohio State Studies, and which are of pertinence to this present study.

#### The Ohio State Leadership Studies

Pressures to improve are being felt by corporate executives, school administrators, military officers, and almost anyone in a formal leader-ship position. It is not the purpose of this paper to discuss the monetary and social issues which lead to these pressures. Rather, this study offers a means to the reduction of some of these pressures. This reduction may be achieved through describing leader behavior according to the criteria set forth by leadership research. This research, in the field of leadership, supplied verifiable information and set certain criteria from which value judgements may then be applied, in a pragmatic way, to improve the settings under consideration.

In order to apply research to value judgements, a succinct look at selected materials of leadership theory will be made. In 1945, Ohio State University initiated a series of leadership studies. These studies contributed numerous unique findings to the existing status of leadership. The first contribution was the identification of Initiating Structure and the dispensation of Consideration as main dimensions of leadership. Abraham K. Korman summarized the findings of Ohio State in his article "Consideration, Initiating Structure, and Organizational Criteria—A Review." Korman Stated:

"While this program was responsible for a variety of significant findings, it is quite likely that the most important contribution was isolation of "Consideration" and "Initiation of Structure" as basic dimensions of leadership behavior in the formal organization. These variables were identified as a result of a series of investigations which attempted to determine, through factor-analytic procedures, the smallest number of dimensions which would adequately describe leader behavior, as perceived

by the leader's subordinates and as the leader himself perceived his own attitudes toward his role. The result, in both cases, was the isolation of two identical dimensions which were named "Consideration" and "Initiation of Structure" and which were defined in the following manner (Fleishman & Peters, 1962):

Initiating Structure (S): Reflects the extent to which an individual is likely to define and structure his role and those of his subordinates toward goal attainment. A high score on this dimension characterized individuals who play a more active role in directing group activities through planning, communicating information, scheduling, trying out new ideas, etc.

Consideration (C): Reflects the extent to which an individual is likely to have job relationships characterized by mutual trust, respect for subordinates' ideas, and consideration of their feelings. A high score is indicative of a climate of good rapport and two-way communication. A low score indicates the supervisor is likely to be more impersonal in his relations with group members." (Korman, 1962)

A second contribution was to regard leadership in other than a good-bad dichotomy. In an introductory article for a publication containing a number of these studies, Carroll L. Shartle stated, "It was decided that 'leadership' should not be regarded as synonymous with 'good leader-ship'." (Stogdill & Coons, 1966) This is of significance for "this distinction had an important bearing on the criterion problem and on the design of leadership studies in general." (Stogdill & Coons, 1956) Through the use of a Likert-Type Scale this study has allowed the participant the latitude of range in describing leadership behavior which eminated from an alleviation of the good-bad dichotomy. The format employed herein followed the same basic design, taken from the Ohio State Studies, which brought about a revision in the design of leadership research.

A third contribution is that researchers began to think of leadership in terms of leader behavior and situational determinates, rather than leadership traits. The following quotation summarizes the approach taken by the Ohio State Research groups:

"Given the initial orientation that leadership is a process of interaction between persons who are participating in goal-orientated group activities within an organization of the sort, it was reasonable to develop as initial guiding hypothesis (a) that leadership is exerted by specific persons (position holders), (b) that leadership is an aspect of group organization, and (c) that leadership is concerned with attaining objectives." (Jacobs, 1970)

The contribution of viewing leadership in terms of leader behavior and situational determinates had some limitations placed upon it. It forced the researcher to deal with only formal organizations, and especially the 'lead men' within certain aspects of this organization. Secondly, through viewing leadership in terms of leader behavior we eliminated the consideration of leadership acts by anyone except the designated leader. The research topic of this thesis has taken into account these drawbacks and has limited itself to the principal as well as limited itself to the formal educational organization.

To measure the existence and attitude toward leader behavior, the Ohio State Studies were chosen. A reason for choosing the Ohio State Studies was Jacob's (1972) interpretation of the "guiding principle" (Jacobs, 1972) of the Ohio State Studies. He stated, "that group leadership was defined, in part, by the existing structure of organizational roles and that these roles were in turn—at least in part—derived from the expectations of the group." (Jacobs, 1972; Shartle & Stogdill, 1953) In the testing of attitudes and perceptions of leadership behavior,

according to the aforementioned principle, educational settings provided a structural organization, with the institutional realities of that organization. The questionnaire, provided by the Ohio State Studies provided the means for testing and comparing the expectations of the group as well as those of the principle. Thus, this thesis considered the two "guiding principles" of the original Ohio State Studies, those of the group and those from existing organizational structure.

A second rationale for choosing the Ohio State Studies lay in its "middle ground" approach to leadership. Before W. W. II the trait approach to leadership provided semantically confusing findings on leadership. Jacobs provided an explanation for this confusion in his analysis of Stogdill's (1948) article "Personal Factors Associated With Leadership: A Survey of Literature." Jacobs states, "while the findings regarding traits . . . appear confusing, comparison of these traits with those summarized earlier shows little similarity. A possible explanation for this lack of comparability is simply that the language being used may not be precise enough to cause the same basic trait always to be named by the same word. However, this explanation creates its own problems since, if trait names are this imprecise, it is difficult to see how the underlying concepts could have any substantial value for either selecting or training leaders." (Jacobs, 1972) This analysis by Jacobs seems correct for Stogdill (1948) stated in his review of literature that "the authors conclude that these findings provide 'devastating evidence' against the concept of the operation of measurable traits in determining social interactions." (Stogdill, 1948) The Ohio State Studies were one of the first to approach leadership according to situational determinates. Shartle

(Stogdill & Coons, 1956) states that "The Ohio State Leadership Studies

. . . had as one of their principal objectives the testing of hypothesis
concerning the situational determination of leader behavior." (Stogdill
& Coons, 1956)

Previously the Ohio State Studies were labeled 'middle ground".

This eminated first from the previous discussion of the Ohio State Research deviating from the trait approach. Secondly, Ohio State was labeled 'middle ground', for the research did not become totally transactional in approaching leadership. Halpin best summarized this as follows:

"Historically, in most disciplines one discovers a tendency for new movements or emphases to arise in revolt against the orthodoxies of a given period. These new movements later tend to crystalize into the orthodoxies of the next period, and fresh countermovements arise in turn. The final position we reach is usually one of middle ground between the original orthodoxy and the first reaction against it. Zig-zag movements of this kind are not uncommon in the progress of science. Leadership research is currently in the process of following this same developmental course. Early research was marked by a search for traits of leadership that would discriminate between leaders and on leaders. The situational emphasis which has characterized research during the past decade arose as a protest against the earlier trait approach, but in some respects this present emphasis may have been carried to excess. To say that leader behavior is determined exclusively by situational factors is to deny to the leader freedom of choice and determination. This violates common sense and experience." (Halpin, 1966)

In summation, the Ohio State Studies provided a leader freedom of choice. The Ohio States Studies, likewise took into account the situational realities present in most, if not all, leadership positions.

#### The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire

The leadership Opinion Questionnaire, as devised by the Personnel Research Board at Ohio State University, was chosen; for its original form has been refined and shortened. This allows for the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire to be practical in its application for it does not take a great deal of time to administer. When requesting cooperation from principals and teachers the brevity of the Questionnaire became a valuable asset.

A second aspect of the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire's practicality was that it described leadership according to the Initiation of Structure and the dispensation of Consideration in such a way as to leave out unnecessary statements. This alleviation shortened the time necessary for administering the Questionnaire and avoided questions of no direct significance.

A second reason for the use of the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire lay in the previous success of itself, or similar Questionnaires. Halpin (1966) summarized the use of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire in educational settings in his book <u>Theory and Research In Administration</u>. (Halpin, 1966) In the chapter entitled "How Leaders Behave" one can find mention of (1) "The Leadership Behavior of School Superintendents (Halpin, 1956); (2) "The Leader Behavior and Leadership Ideology of Educational Administrators and Aircraft Commanders" (Halpin, 1955); (3) "The Behavior of Leaders" (Halpin, 1956); (4) "The Superintendents Effectiveness As a Leader" (Halpin, 1958); (5) "Leadership Behavior Associated with the Administrative Reputation of College Departments" (Hemphill, 1955); and (6) "The Leadership Behavior of School Superintendents" (Halpin, 1956).

Halpin summarized the findings as follows: "The evidence from these inquiries shows that effective leadership is characterized by high Initiation of Structure and high Consideration. These two dimensions of leader behavior represent fundamental and pertinent aspects of leadership skill. The L. B. D. Q. (Real Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire) provides an objective and reliable method of describing the leader's behavior on these two dimensions." (Halpin, 1966) The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire was a direct descendant of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire. Through the examples above, and the improvements made the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire provided an effective tool for the measurement of Initiation of Structure and the dispensation of Consideration.

A third reason for the present study, and the use of the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire, may be found in "The Leader Behavior and
Leadership Ideology of Educational Administrators and Aircraft Members". (Halpin, 1955) In the summary section, of the above mentioned
article, Halpin stated that "previous research in industry and in the
military has shown that 'effective' leadership is associated with high
scores on both (Initiating Structure and Consideration) leader behavior dimensions. On the asumption that the criterion also applies to
educational administrators, we may conclude from the present findings
that on the one hand, educational administrators demonstrate good
leader behavior in their high Consideration for the members of their
staff, but on the other, fail to initiate structure to as great an extent
as is probably desirable". (Halpin, 1955) This research project, through

the use of the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire, will provide quantitative information concerning Halpin's concluding conjecture.

# Application of the Main Dimensions of the Ohio State Leadership Studies \*\*To Educational Settings\*\*

The problem section of this Chapter discussed a need for empirical research in the field of educational leadership. This need eminated from the lack of formal testing and from the areas that have been chosen for the testing. It was the purpose of this portion of this chapter to provide in-depth review of the research leading to the need for formal testing in educational settings.

It has been stated earlier that there has been a limited amount of empirical research in educational administration, which employed the leadership dimension of Consideration and Initiation of Structure, beyond the elementary school level. An example of research from which elementary school administrators were forced to borrow findings is "The Leader Behavior Associated with the Administrative Reputation of College Departments" (Hemphill, from Stogdill & Coons, 1956)

The above named article is concerned with the results of a study of leadership and administration in 22 departments in a liberal arts college of a moderately large university. The study was designed to explore the relationship between the leader behavior of the departmental administrator and the reputation of his department for being well administered." (Hemphill, from Stogdill & Coons, 1956)

The following conclusions resulted from the analysis:

- 1. Administrative 'reputation' of the college department was reliably reported by faculty members. Agreement between two independent samples of respondents was very high (r = .94).
- 2. Older and more mature faculty members provided a larger proportion of the "reputation" information than "younger" or "new" members of the faculty.
- 3. "Reputation" for being well administered is related to the leadership behavior of department chairmen as this behavior is described by department members. Those departments with the best "reputations" for good administration have chairmen who are described as above the average on both Consideration and Initiation of Structure and as more nearly meeting the behavior expected of an ideal chairman.
- 4. Larger departments tend to have better administrative reputations than smaller departments. This fact is independent of the Initiating Structure activity of the chairman and may indicate only that more care is exercised in selecting chairmen of large departments.
- 5. With the exception of size, all group characteristics of the departments, both demographic characteristics and those described by means of the Group Description Questionnaire, showed no significant relationship to reputation for good administration. (Hemphill, 1955)

The above research was of some importance for it compared the perceptions of those people in teaching positions with administrative reputations. Even though reputations are not synonymous with the principals' perceptions, this study may show a greater degree of similarity in responses for the degree of interpersonal contact is greater than in other settings.

A second example of research not directly related to an elementary school was "The Leadership Behavior of School Superintendents", (Halpin, from Halpin 1966) The main concern of this study was to "determine the

relationship between the superintendent's own perception of how he behaves on the Initiating Structure and Consideration Dimensions, as contrasted with the board and staff perception; and furthermore, to discover the corresponding relationship between his, the board's, and the staff's beliefs concerning how he should behave as a leader." (Halpin, 1966) The L. B. D. Q. was used in the testing. Findings of this study include "On each leader behavior dimension, the staff respondents tend to agree in the description of their respective superintendents. Likewise, the board respondents tend to agree in the description of their respective superintendents. Although the staff and board members each agree among themselves as a group in their description of the superintendent's leadership behavior, the two groups do not agree with each other." (Halpin, 1966) A second finding was that "the boards, in fact, expect the superintendents to show greater Consideration to their staffs than the staffs themselves posit as ideal: (Halpin, 1966) Again different views from different levels arise. The following chapters tested basically the same principle, but at a different level in the educational setting.

A third example of research not directly related to an elementary school, but again concerned with School Superintendents was "The Leader Behavior and Leadership Ideology of Educational Administrators and Aircraft Commanders". "The sample consisted of two groups of subjects, 64 educational administrators and 132 aircraft commanders." (Halpin, 1966) The test given was based upon the revised L. B. D. Q. with the scoring based upon Consideration and Initiating Structure. The subjects of the testing first described their "ideal" behavior as leaders. The "real"

behavior of these leaders was then described by numerous subordinates to these people. "Only a low relationship was found between the Real' scores and the 'I deal'." (Halpin, 1966) This leads to the general idea "that a leader's beliefs about how he should behave as a leader are not highly associated with his behavior as described by his followers. On the basis of these findings personnel workers engaged in leadership training programs should be especially wary about accepting trainees' statements of how they should behave as evidence of parallel changes in their actual behavior." (Halpin, 1966)

The following chapters in this research will report the results of a similar study. This thesis had as its main concern, principals and teachers in elementary schools. It is possible that the higher degree of interaction between elementary principals and teachers, than between superintendents and the people with whom they come into contact, may cause a greater similarity of scores.

A second purpose for empirical testing, in the area of educational administration, lay in the areas of prior research projects. The main principles of the Ohio State Studies, applied at an elementary school level, are sporadically incorporated into the book Administrative Performance and Personality. (Hemphill, Griffiths, and Frederickson, 1962) Through the testing of 232 volunteer principals in a simulated elementary school setting it was found that:

Principals who received high scores of Consideration are judged by superiors to get along well with teachers and parents. They tend slightly to refrain from showing concern about evaluations and they tend to be young and inexperienced. Their interests are like those of

sales managers (not physicians), and according to the personality inventory they are friendly and enthusiastic, not shy, and insecure . . . There is a tendency for principals who receive high scores on Initiating Structure to be judged by their superiors as knowing administration. They tend to resemble presidents of manufacturing concerns in interests and to receive high scores on Character Strength on the personality inventory." (Hemphill, Griffiths, Frederikson, 1962)

The format of the above summarized article served as an example of the format used in a number of research projects whose concern is leadership according to the dimensions of Consideration and Initiating Structure. Two points must be considered in analyzing the setup of this research. These are: (1) The principals are being described by their superiors, and (2) The testing takes place in a simulated school. The format employed in this thesis deviated from the study by Hemphill et al. This deviation took two forms.

First, the perceptions of teachers and principals were being empirically tested. The type of testing and analysis employed herein provides for a viewpoint of those in somewhat of a subserviant position to the principal. Therefore, rather than gathering and analyzing data from superiors of the principal this thesis will gather and analyze data from teachers, or those in somewhat of a subserviant role to the principal.

Secondly, the testing undertaken in this thesis was concerned with situations in the actual schools. Through empirically testing principals and teachers in the schools in which the leadership activities actually take place a higher degree of realism will be achieved.

An article, "The Representative Function: Neglected Dimension of Leader Rehavior,: (Hills, 1963) is a second study in which elementary

administrators were subjects of empirical testing. Hills attempted to show 'that an adequate concept of leadership must include the performance of the leader in representing the interests of the group to higher organizational levels and to the organization's clientele." A revised form of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire was used. A major portion of the findings by Hills (1963) may be summarized as follows:

"First, it is now clear that Consideration and Initiating Structure are not solely concerned with problems of internal leadership. Even though the concepts are defined rather explicitly in terms of internal operations, it is obvious that Consideration for group members can also be reflected in the manner with which the leader deals with outsiders. It seems equally obvious that a leader can initiate structure upward as well as downward . . .

A second major result is that our findings on Consideration and Initiating Structure are sufficiently similar to those of previous studies to mitigate the sampling and halo-effect problems."

Two points must be considered in analyzing this research. These are:

(1) "Initiation of Structure and Consideration are not solely concerned with problems of internal leadership." (Hills, 1963), and (2) a mitigation of the halo-effect. This thesis, through the employment of the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire had incorporated the main finding of Hills (1963) concerning the leader representing the interests of the group. Examples of statements from the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire reflecting the representative theory are listed below:

- She stands up for those on the faculty, even though it makes her unpopular.
- 2. She backs up the faculty in their actions.
- 3. She puts the facultie's welfare above the welfare of any member in it.

Secondly, this thesis has taken into account the halo-effect problems and has made compensations for such. A means employed to alleviate
some degree of the halo-effect was a promise of confidentiality. This
confidentiality was further enhanced through providing envelopes for
the return of the questionnaires. These precautions will add to a higher
degree of objectivity by the participant in filling out the questionnaire.

A third study, "The Leader Behavior and Leadership Ideology of Educational Administrators and Aircraft Commanders" (Halpin, 1955) employed elementary school principals as subjects but only as a part of the total sample.

The main hypothesis and findings of importance may be summarized as follows:

Two groups of officially designated leaders, 64 educational administrators and 132 medium bombardment aircraft commanders have been compared in respect to their leadership ideology and leader behavior as measured by the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire, 'Real' and 'Ideal'. It was hypothesized that the administrators, both in their leadership ideology and their leader behavior, would display more Consideration and less Initiation of Structure than the aircraft commanders. This hypothesis was supported by the findings. But for both samples of leaders only low relationships were found between the leaders' beliefs in how they should behave and their behavior as described by their group members. The data suggest that the correlation between the 'Real' and 'Ideal' is likely to be greater for the dimension of leader behavior which is least supported by the dominant mores of a given institution."

Previous research in industry and military has shown that "effective" leadership is associated with high scores on both leader behavior dimensions. On the assumption that this criterion also applies to educational administrators, we may conclude from the present findings that on the one hand, educational administrators demonstrate good leader behavior in their high Consideration for the members of their staffs; but on the other, fail to Initiate Structure to as great an extent as is probably desirable. (Halpin, 1955)

This thesis has empirically tested the assumptions made by Halpin in the above summarized research project. This testing will provide quantitative evidence where now only assumptions exist. "The Leader Behavior and Leadership Ideology of Educational Administrators and Aircraft Commanders" was the only research project conducted in which the ideas of Consideration and Initiation of Structure were viewed both really and ideally, through the perceptions of elementary principals and teachers. The multitude of elementary schools, and the magnitude of administrative responsibilities, when compared to the amount of research done, produced an area of needed, desired and relatively untouched group for empirical study.

# Object Of the Study

Past research in the field of leadership had, to some degree, been lax in the application of the leadership dimensions of Consideration and Initiation of Structure to elementary school settings. This lackadaissical attitude on the part of researchers forced elementary educators to borrow from research in the fields of business, government, or education at a higher level.

It was the object of this present study to provide empirical findings which would alleviate some of the borrowing which has taken place. Thus, the author empirically tested the perceptions of principals and teachers, in an Ideal and a Real situation, according to the leadership dimensions of Initiation of Structure and Consideration.

# Hypothesis

The hypothesis for the present study was as follows:

There exists a significant difference in the Likert-Type Scale scores of principals and teachers in their attitude toward, and their perception of, the existence of the dispensation of Consideration and the Initiation of Structure.

For statistical purposes this research hypothesis was re-stated as the following null-hypothesis:

There is no significant difference in the Likert-Type Scale scores of principals and teachers in their attitude toward, and their perception of, the existence of the dispensation of Consideration and the Initiation of Structure.

The above null-hypothesis was divided into four subordinate null-hypotheses. They were as follows:

 There is no significant difference in the Likert-Type Scale scores of principals and teachers in their attitude toward Consideration.

- 2. There is no significant difference in the Likert-Type Scale scores of principals and teachers in their perception of the actual dispensation of Consideration.
- 3. There is no significant difference in the Likert-Type Scale scores of principals and teachers in their attitude toward the Initiation of Structure.
- 4. There is no difference in the Likert-Type Scale scores of principals and teachers in their perception of the actual Initiation of Structure.

# Definition of Terms

Consideration—Reflects the extent to which an individual was likely to have job relationships characterized by mutual trust, respect for subordinates' ideas and consideration of their feelings. A high score was indicative of a climate of good rapport and two-way communication. A low score indicated the supervisor was likely to be more impersonal in his relations with group members." (Korman, 1962)

Initiation of Structure—Reflects the extent to which an individual was likely to define and structure his role and those of his subordinates toward goal attainment. A high score on this dimension characterized individuals who play a more active role in directing group activities through planning, communicating information, scheduling, trying out new ideas, etc. (Korman, 1962)

Real—What you (the respondent) consider to be the existing state of affairs in your school; what you consider to be the actual happenings in your school at this and past points in time.

Ideal—-What you (the respondent) consider to be an ideal state of affairs; what you consider to be the utopian school setting.

### Assumptions

This present investigation required making several assumptions related to the population which served as the sample. The study assumed:

1. That the Religions involved in the sample population were representative of a total population.

- 2. That the Parochial Schools, which were the only schools to serve in the sample population, were representative of a total population.
- 3. That the 16 of the 17 responding women Principals were representative of a total population.
- 4. That a mitigation of the halo-effect occured.

# Summary

The major significant findings of the Ohio State Leadership Studies were the isolation of the leadership dimensions of Consideration and Initiation of Structure. Through the use of the leadership dimensions of Consideration and Initiation of Structure one becomes able to describe leadership activities, rather than place dichotomous value judgements upon the actions of the person filling the leadership role. The main dimensions of leadership brought out by Ohio State also focused the perceptions of researchers on leadership activities rather than traits of leaders.

The Ohio State Leadership Studies also forced upon the researcher a Consideration of the "existing structure of organizational roles." These roles are existent in educational settings and may plan a significant role. The idea of existing structure and organizational roles added an existing dimension not found in the Trait Approach to Leadership, the Michigan State Studies, Idiosyncrasy Credit Theory or the Social Exchange Theory.

The research conducted at Ohio State has failed, though, to empirically test leadership situations in elementary schools. This lack of formal testing has led to conjectures concerning the leadership

activities of principals in elementary educational settings. To alleviate one of these conjectures this present study has as its objective to empirically test the perceptions of principals and teachers, according to the dimensions of Consideration and Initiating Structure, in a Real and an Ideal educational setting.

#### CHAPTER II

#### METHOD AND PROCEDURES

### Preliminaries

To measure the existence and attitude toward leader behavior as described by the Ohio State Studies a revised form of the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire was chosen. The rationale for this choice is discussed in Chapter I. Permission was received from the Bureau of Business Research, Personnel Board, Ohio State University.

# Selection of Subjects

Cooperation of principals and teachers at twenty Parochial elementary schools was secured during the month of January, 1975. This cooperation was secured through a personal meeting during which each principal was informed of the nature and objectives of this research through: (1) a letter of introduction signed by Sister Mary Gloria, (Appendix 1) and (2) a personal meeting with the principal of each school for the purpose of explanation and to secure a definite commitment concerning their participation. A follow-up letter was sent during the first week of February, 1975, to notify all persons involved as to the actual testing dates.

### Instrument Used

To test the differences in the Likert-Type Scale scores of principals and teachers in their attitude toward, and their perception of,

the existence of Consideration and the Initiation of Structure the

Leadership Opinion Questionnaire was chosen. Certain modifications of

terminology were incorporated so as to adapt the Leadership Question
naire to an educational setting. These modifications took two forms:

(1) preparing new instructions appropriate to describing the behavior

of principals; and (2) a change in the wording of items.

For the purpose of this investigation each participant was asked to fill out two identical questionnaires. The first questionnaire was to reflect what the principal or teacher considered the "Real" state of affairs in their school. The second questionnaire was to reflect what the principal or teacher considered the "Ideal" state of affairs in their school.

The new instructions for the Real section read as follows:

This portion of the questionnaire is concerned with what you consider to be an Ideal state of affairs.

Directly below each statement is a series of words numbered one through five. In the space provided to the right of these words place the number which corresponds to the word, that you feel best describes an Ideal atmosphere according to the statement given.

This should reflect what you consider to be utopian school setting.

All answers will be confidential.

The new instructions for the Ideal section read as follows:

This portion of the questionnaire is concerned with what you consider to be an Ideal state of affairs.

Directly below each statement is a series of words numbered one through five. In the space provided to the right of these words place the number, which corresponds to the word, that you feel best describes an Ideal atmosphere according to the statement given. This should reflect what you consider to be the utopian school setting.

All answers will be confidential.

The revision of the wording contained within the revised Leadership
Opinion Questionnaire took three forms. These are substituting "faculty"
for "people in the work group", "school" for "section" and "she" for "he".
The latter of these changes was incorporated for all, but one of the
principals involved was female.

The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire used in this research "was developed in connection with research at the Personnel Research Board in cooperation with the International Harvester Company." (Fleishman, 1957) The statements covered a wide range of behaviors, as illustrated by this sample of items:

"She insists that everything be done her way."

"She encourages slow working people on the faculty to work harder."

"She backs up the faculty in their actions."

"She offers new approaches to problems."

"She puts suggestions by the faculty into operation."

"She treats all faculty as her equal."

The questionnaire, in its entirety can be found in Appendix 2.

One-half the statements of the revised Leadership Opinion Questionnaire reflect the leadership dimension of Consideration. The other onehalf reflect the leadership dimension of Initiating Structure. Through the use of the abbreviations C (Consideration) and I-S (Initiating Structure) in the space previously designated for the participant's response, Appendix 2 provided the categorization according to the respective leadership dimension for each statement.

# Coding the Questionnaire

Due to the confidentiality of the subject matter of this thesis, the participating schools are referred to by code numbers. These code numbers, which differentiate between schools, were incorporated into the questionnaire on the last page in such a way so as not to be readily recognizable. The coding was accomplished through labeling each questionnaire with a "Form" number. This "Form" number was actually a coding device. The Questionnaire that the principal was requested to fill out was marked with the letter P on the front page of the questionnaire, in the presence of the principal, to avoid any confusion during the Principal's dispensation of the questionnaire.

## The Experiment

The week of February 24, 1975, to February 28, 1975, was chosen to do the actual testing. Each of the twenty schools was visited for the purpose of dispensing the revised Leadership Opinion Questionnaire, and answering any questions.

### Regulation of the Experiment

The principals were instructed to pass the questionnaires on to the teachers. It was requested, but not demanded, that teachers from different schools be chosen. The teachers received the instructions from the principals as well as written instructions on each questionnaire. To guarantee confidentiality an envelope was provided for each respondent.

# Acquisition of Data

The questionnaires would be picked up in person, or addressed stamped envelopes were provided for the return mailing of the questionnaires. The Questionnaires, from eight schools, were picked up in person. The remaining twelve were received, by the author, through the mail.

Each school was allocated four sets of questionnaires. One set, containing a Real and an Ideal section, was for the principal and three sets were for use by the three teachers. Fifteen schools returned all four sets of questionnaires. Three schools returned three questionnaires, and two schools returned two questionnaires.

# The Sample

A total of seventeen schools were used in the sample. The sample consisted of the fifteen schools that returned all four of the distributed questionnaires. The two schools chosen from the three that returned three questionnaires were used in the sample since two questionnaires were received from two of the three teachers of each respective school, as well as the respective principals' questionnaires.

The one remaining school which returned three questionnaires was not a part of the sample because no questionnaire was received from the principal. The two schools which returned two questionnaires were not used because of the overall lack of response from both principals and teachers.

# Scoring of Data

Four scores were derived for each respondent. These scores fell into the categories of Real-Ideal, Principal-Teacher, which are further divided into Real-Ideal, Principal-Teacher scores in the separate categories of Consideration and Initiating Structure. The Real-Ideal, Principal-Teacher scores under the category "Initiating Structure" ranged from a possible low of 1.00, to a possible high of 5.00. This, likewise, held true for the Real-Ideal, Principal-Teacher scores of the Consideration section. A lower numerical accumulation represented a lower degree of, or less favorable attitude toward, that category being tested. An Ideal score represented the teachers' or principals' opinions of what activities would constitute an utopian leader. The Real score represents what the teacher or principal perceived as the actual leadership behavior, that is being carried on at that certain school, at the present and past points in time.

In scoring the revised Leadership Opinion Questionnaire the choices were given values of 1 to 5. Ten of the twenty Consideration items were scored negatively. Seventeen of the twenty Initiation of Structure items were scored negatively. The numbers of the ten Consideration statements scored negatively were: 2, 10, 11, 24, 28, 19, 32, 35, 38, and 39. The numbers of the seventeen Initiation of Structure statements scored negatively were: 3, 5, 6, 7, 12, 14, 15, 50, 21, 26, 27, 31, 33, 34, 36, 37, and 40.

# Refinement

The accumulation of scores to be used in the statistical treatment,

employed two methods. The first method was for the principals' scores, and the second method was for the scores of the teachers.

The scores of the principals' questionnaires were totaled for each of the four categories. A mean score was then derived for each statement by dividing the number of questions into the total category score. This resulted in four mean scores for each principal according to their respective schools.

The scoring of the teacher's questionnaire can best be described by the following illustration. The author received a set of Questionnaires from each of three teachers at school 16701. Four scores were derived for each teacher. One score for Initiating Structure-Real (Category 1) one score for Initiating Structure-Ideal (Category 2), and one score for Consideration-Real (Category 3), and one score for Consideration-Ideal (Category 4). The teachers' responses were then totaled, in each of the four categories, and a mean teacher's response was derived by dividing the number of responding teachers into each category total. For example, the responses of the three responding teachers from school 16701 were as follows: Teacher A's responses were: Category 1-55, Category 2-63, Category 3-33, and Category 4-84. Teacher B's responses were: Category 1-63, Category 2-61, Category 3-85, and Category 4-86. Teacher C's responses were: Category 1-65, Category 2-61, Category 3-85, and Category 4-84. Adding each of the three responding teacher's scores in Category 1 produced a total score of 183. This was then divided by three to give a mean teacher's response for Category 1 of 61. The above process was continued for the other three categories in this school which provided a school specific mean teacher's response for each category.

A second mean score was then derived for each statement contained within the questionnaire by dividing the number of questions in each category into the total mean category score. This resulted in four mean statement scores from the mean teacher's score according to each respective school. The same process was followed for the sixteen other participating schools.

## Statistical Treatment

From each school the principal provided four mean statement scores, and each group of teachers provided four mean statement scores. The scores were then divided into the main categories of Initiating Structure and Consideration. This allowed for the arrangement of a Two Factor Analysis of Variance Statistical Test (Bruning and Klintz, 1968) which compared the perceptions and attitudes of principals and teachers in Real and Ideal situations according to the main categories of Initiating Structure and Consideration. The Author performed the statistical testing himself in an effort to determine what, if any, effects the variables had in combination with each other. Chapter III provides the findings of this treatment.

#### Summary

The principal and three teachers from each of these schools reflected their perception of, and their attitude toward, leadership through their responses on the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire. The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire was modified so as to be appropriate to an

educational setting. This modification was in the changing of certain words and/or phrases, and also in the instructions to each respondent.

Four scores were derived for each respondent. These scores fell into the categories of Real-Ideal, Principal-Teacher, which were further categorized into the Real-Ideal, Principal-Teacher scores in the separate categories of Consideration and Initiating Structure. A mean score was derived for each statement according to the above named categories. These mean statement scores were then analyzed through the use of a Two-Factor Analysis of Variance.

#### CHAPTER III

#### RESULTS

This experiment sought to compare the differences of principals and teachers in their attitude toward, and their perception of, the existence of Consideration and Initiation of Structure. For the purpose of the investigation the following research hypothesis was formulated:

There exists a significant difference in the Likert-Type Scale scores of principals and teachers in their attitude toward, and their perception of, the existence of the dispensation of Consideration and the Initiation of Structure.

For statistical purposes this research hypothesis was restated as a null hypothesis and divided into four subordinate null hypotheses. A reporting of the results through a statistical analysis of the main null hypothesis and the four subordinate null hypotheses is contained in the following chapter. Also, a finding not hypothesized, but found to be significant, and contradictory to a prior assumption is discussed.

Reported in Table 1 are the results obtained from a Two-Factor

Analysis of Variance Test applied to the cumulative scores of teachers

and principals which measured the perception on the Ohio State Leadership

Dimension of Consideration. The perception of Consieration was the main

concern of two of the four sub-hypotheses formulated in this study. These

two sub-hypotheses were: (1) There is no significant difference in the

Likert-Type scale scores of principals and teachers in their attitudes

toward Consideration; and (2) There is no significant difference in the Likert-Type Scale scores of principals and teachers in their perception of the actual dispensation of Consideration.

TABLE 1: Consideration

A Two Factor Analysis of Variance of the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (Real and Ideal) which provides the sum of the squares, degrees of freedom, mean squares, F-ratios, and significance for teachers and principals.

Source Consideration	SS	df	ms	F	P
Total	10.7745	67	-	-	-
Real & Ideal	2 <b>.</b> 1566	1	2.1566	16.0222	.001
Teachers & Principals	.0014	1	•0014	•0014	N.S.
Real-Ideal & Teachers- Principals	•0006	1	• 0006	•0006	N.S.
Error	8.6159	64	.1346	-	-

The first sub-hypothesis is concerned with the teachers' and principals' attitudes toward the dispensation of Consideration. Table 1 provides the following information: (1) There was no significant difference between teachers and principals' perceptions of the Ideal Consideration in the leadership role; (2) There was no significant interaction between Teachers-Principals and the Real-Ideal variables. This statistical analysis provided evidence which will not allow for the rejection of the

first null hypothesis. Therefore, the first null hypothesis must be considered plausable.

The second sub-hypothesis was concerned with the actual dispensation of Consideration as perceived by the teachers and principals. Table 1 provided the following information: (1) There was no significant difference between teachers and principals perceptions of the actual dispensation of Consideration; (by the principal) (2) There was no significant interaction between Teachers-Principals and the Real-Ideal variables. This statistical analysis provided evidence which will not allow for the rejection of the second null hypothesis. Therefore, the second null hypothesis must, likewise, be considered plausable.

Reported in Table 2 were the results obtained from the same statistical test, and the same subjects but are concerned with the Ohio State Leadership Dimension of Initiating Structure. The perception of the Initiation of Structure was the main concern of the remaining two sub-hypotheses. These two sub-hypotheses are; (3) There is no significant difference in the Likert-Type Scale scores of principals and teachers in their attitude toward the Initiation of Structure; and (4) There is no difference in the Likert-Type Scale scores of principals and teachers in their perception of the actual Initiation of Structure.

## TABLE 2: Initiation of Structure

A Two-Factor Analysis of Variance of the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (Real and Ideal) which provides the sum of the squares, degrees of freedom, mean squares, F-ratios, and significance for teachers and principals.

Source Initiating Structure	SS	df	ms	F	P
Total	4.9757	67	-	-	-
Ideal & Real	.1582	1	.1582	2.2344	NS.
Teachers & Principals	.24	1	.24	3.3898	N.S.
Ideal-Real & Teachers- Principals	.0415	1	.0415	•5861	N.S.
Error	4.536	64	•0708	-	-

The third sub-hypothesis was concerned with the principals and teachers attitudes toward the Initiation of Structure. Table 2 provided the following information: (1) There was no significant difference between teachers and principals perceptions of the ideal Initiation of Structure in the leadership role; (2) There was no significant interaction between Teachers-Principals and Real-Ideal variables. This statistical analysis provided evidence which will not allow for the rejection of the third null hypothesis. Therefore, as with the two prior null hypotheses, the third sub-hypothesis must be considered plausable.

The fourth sub-hypothesis was concerned with the actual Initiation of Structure as perceived by principals and teachers. Table 2 provided the following information: (1) There was no significant difference between teachers' and principals' perceptions of the actual Initiation of Structure; (2) There was no significant interaction between Teachers-Principals and the Real-Ideal variables. This statistical analysis also

provided evidence which will not allow for the rejection of the fourth, and final, sub-hypothesis. Therefore, the fourth null hypothesis must be considered plausable.

The data explained for the main null hypothesis, made possible a summary of the statistical evidence previously analyzed. The main null hypothesis reads: There is no difference in the Likert-Type Scale scores of principals and teachers in their attitude toward, and their perception of, the dispensation of Consideration and the Initiation of Structure. Tables 1 and 2 provided information which will not allow for the rejection of this hypothesis or any portion of this hypothesis. Therefore, this main null hypothesis, including each of its four major divisions, must be considered plausable.

Table 1 provided information, not hypothesized, but found to be significant. The following information was provided: Teachers and principals cumulatively differed in their perceptions of Consideration in a Real and an Ideal setting. This was found to be significant at the .001 level. More specifically teachers and principals together in their perceptions viewed the Real dispensation of Consideration significantly different from what they cumulatively viewed the Ideal dispensing of Consideration. Therefore, both teachers and principals indicate that the principals should show more Consideration than, at present, is being shown. It has been noted elsewhere that Halpin theorized that "Educational administrators demonstrate good leader behavior in their high Consideration for the members of their staffs: but on the other, fail to Initiate Structure to as great an extent as is

probably desirable." (Halpin, 1955) The significant findings contained in Table 1 provide information contradictory to Halpin's conjecture. It was found that there was agreement, by both teachers and principals, that a higher degree of Consideration was desirable. There was no significant finding regarding a desire for a higher degree of Initiation of Structure.

### Summary

Data from the experiment were divided into the two major categories of Consideration and Initiation of Structure. A Two-Factor Analysis of Variance was computed for each of the above named major categories. The results of this analysis, in both categories, was found to be not statistically significant.

The category of Consideration produced a statistically significant finding (.001) that was not hypothesized. This finding is that teachers and principals, in aggregate, viewed the Real dispensation of Consideration significantly different from what they viewed an Ideal dispensation of Consideration.

#### CHAPTER IV

#### CONCLUSION

#### Summary

Research, which incorporated the leadership dimensions of Initiating Structure and Consideration, at the elementary school level, has been minimal. Andrew W. Halpin states that "those of us responsible for training administrators have welcomed research findings on leadership and group behavior, and we have found ourselves drawing heavily upon insights derived from other disciplines." (Halpin, 1966) A review of the literature supports Halpin's criticism. A further analysis identified a need which involves the lack of formal testing at the elementary school level. Past research has focused on school superintendents, (Halpin, 1955) college departments, (Hemphill in Stogdill and Coons, 1956) and principals from mixed levels of the educational hierarchy, (Hemphill, Griffiths, and Frederikson, 1962: Halpin, 1966; Halpin, 1956). The uniqueness of the situation experienced by elementary school principals sets those principals apart from those at other levels of educational administration. Due to this uniqueness, further research at the elementary school level is necessary. This investigation was designed to empirically test the attitudes and perceptions of elementary principals and teachers according to the leadership dimensions of Initiating Structure and Consideration.

Principals and teachers from seventeen parochial elementary schools served as the subjects in this investigation. The principal and three

teachers from each school were asked to fill out and return individual copies of the revised Leadership Opinion Questionnaire.

The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire was divided into two sections, Real and Ideal, with each section containing identical statements. The sections Real and Ideal were to reflect, respectively, what the principal and teachers felt was the actual leadership activities which were being conducted, and what the principal and teachers felt to be Ideal leadership activities.

When the questionnaires were scored the main categories of Real and Ideal were further divided into the categories of Real-Initiating Structure, Real-Consideration, Ideal-Initiating Structure, and Ideal-Consideration. A refinement of the data resulted in the acquisition of four mean statement scores, according to the previously mentioned categories, for each principal and group of teachers. A Two-Factor Analysis of Variance Test was then employed to compare the attitudes and perceptions of principals and teachers, in Real and Ideal situations, according to the leadership dimensions of Initiating Structure and Consideration. The results were not statistically significant for the hypotheses which were formulated.

This present study did, however, find statistical significance in an area not hypothesized. It was found that principals and teachers cumulatively viewed the Real dispensation of Consideration differently than they cumulatively viewed the Ideal dispensation of Consideration.

## Theoretical Implications

This experiment provided information relating to the main research

hypothesis, the four subordinate null-hypotheses, and a finding not hypothesized. A discussion of the aforementioned divisions, in light of the findings regarding each, reveals the theoretical implications of this investigation.

The finding not hypothesized, but found to be statistically significant, is that principals and teachers, in aggregate, viewed the Real dispensation of Consideration differently than they, together in their perceptions, viewed an Ideal dispensation of Consideration. This was found to be significant at the .001 level. This finding is contradictory to an inference made by Halpin (1955) concerning high scores on both the Initiating Structure and the Consideration dimensions of leader behavior. Halpin assumed that since research in industry and the military showed that "'effective' leadership is associated with high scores on both leader behavior dimensions," (Halpin, 1955) that this two-way accumulation of high scores would likewise hold true for educational settings. This present study found that elementary principals and teachers do not, at least not statistically significantly, desire a higher degree of Initiating Structure. It was found though, that both principals and teachers, together in their perceptions, desire a higher degree of Consideration. This was the only finding of statistical significance brought forth by this reserach.

An examination of the findings of this research, as these findings relate to the research hypothesis, reveals the findings which were not statistically significant. The main research hypothesis reads as follows:

There exists a significant difference in the LikertType Scale scores of principals and teachers in their

attitude toward, and their perception of, the existence of the dispensation of Consideration and the Initiation of Structure.

For the purpose of statistical analysis this main research hypothesis was divided into four subordinate null-hypothesis, These four read as follows:

There is no significant difference in the Likert-Type Scale scores of principals and teachers in their attitude toward Consideration.

There is no significant difference in the Likert-Type Scale scores of principals and teachers in their perception of the actual dispensation of Consideration.

There is no significant difference in the Likert-Type Scale scores of principals and teachers in their attitude toward the Initiation of Structure.

There is no sngnificant difference in the Likert-Type Scale scores of principals and teachers in their perception of the actual Initiation of Structure.

The results of this investigation failed to reject the four subordinate null-hypotheses, as well as failed to support the main research hypothesis. Therefore we must consider each of these subordinate null-hypotheses plausable. We must also reject the main research hypothesis. In other words, there may be actually no difference in the attitudes and perceptions, of principals and teachers, according to their responses on the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire concerning Initiating Structure and Consideration.

The failure to reject the four subordinate null-hypotheses is a second finding which is contrary to a previous finding by Halpin (1955). He states that "for both samples of leaders only low relationships were found between the leaders' beliefs in how they should behave and their

behavior as described by their group members. (Halpin, 1955) The study by Halpin identified a low correlation between a leader's beliefs and his actions. This present study did not find these low correlations. Perhaps the difference was a result of the type and level of subjects in the two studies. If this is the source of the difference, then it becomes possible that leadership variables are not constant across all persons and places. Administrators and teachers, in closely knit educational situations, may find a closer relationship between the dimensions of leadership.

A possible reason for the similarity of scores lies in the subjects themselves. It can only be inferred, at the present time, but a large number of respondents were Religious. This, in all probability, means living together in a convent, thus a high degree of interaction; and secondly, having similar religious backgrounds, thus a high degree of similarity in values and backgrounds. This high level of interaction, similarity of backgrounds, and similarity of values may account for a high similarity of scores.

A second reason which may account for the similarity of scores lies in the sex of the respondents. In the sample, sixteen of the seventeen responding principals were female. The ratio of male to female teacher respondents is unknown to the author. The inference of an overabundance of female respondents in and of itself may limit the perceptions of the sample, thus a similarity of scores.

## Practical Implications

Caution must be exercised in the formation of generalizations from

a singular empirical study. The author would like to suggest a need for additional research, employing leadership principles, in the field of education. An example of this need can be found in the contrast between the findings of Halpin (1955) and the findings of this present study. It is not the purpose of this research to say who is correct or incorrect, rather the contradictions brought forth in this research pose questions regarding the present practice of borrowing research findings from other fields. This borrowing may not reflect the actual leadership activities and needs of today.

### Suggestions for Further Research

In the future researchers in the field of educational leadership might investigate the following possibilities:

- 1. Expand this present study in such a way so as to enlarge the diversity of the subjects. This expansion may take two forms. First, rather than limiting the educational establishments to parochial schools, enlarge the sample to include a proportionate number of public schools. Secondly, rather than having an overabundance of female respondents, enlarge the sample to include a proportionate number of male respondents.
- 2. Correlate demographics with scores on the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire. Examples of demographics which may be used include years of formal education, years of teaching experience, religious or nonreligious affiliations, male or female, scores on a given test designed to measure certain values, etc.
- 3. Adapt instruments used in other research projects, concerning leadership, to fit an educational situation. This will allow for a comparison of findings in an educational situation with findings in an industrial or military setting.
- 4. Compare the perceptions and attitudes of elementary teachers, principals, superintendents, and

- parents of students according to the criteria of any leadership dimension(s) of your choice.
- 5. Compare the perceptions and attitudes of elementary teachers and principals with those of secondary principals and teachers, according to the criteria of any leadership dimension(s) of your choice.

# APPENDICES

St. Hyacinth School

3640 West Wolfram Street

Chicago 18, Illinois

Tel. 342-7551

## Dear Principal,

I would like to introduce Joseph R. Chmeleck. Joseph, a former employee, is presently working on his masters degree at Eastern Illinois University. To meet the requirements for this degree Joe chose to write a thesis. This thesis may be of interest and/or help to us as administrators. He will fill you in on the details.

Young men interested in and working on the problems we as Catholic educators face are an asset to parochial education. To take advantage of this asset, I request your assistance in helping Joe accomplish this worthwhile goal.

Yours in Christ,

Sister M. Gloria Principal St. Hyacinth School

# INSTRUCTIONS I

This portion of the questionnaire is concerned with what you consider to be the existing state of affairs in your school.

Directly below each statement is a series of words numbered 1 through 5. In the space provided to the right of these words place 'the number, which corresponds to the word, that you feel best describes the principals' actions according to the statement given.

This section should reflect what you consider to be the actual happenings in your school at this and past points in time.

All answers will be confidential.

1.	She refuses to compromise a point.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never	C
2.	She does personal favors for members of the faculty.  1. Often 2. Fairly often 3. Occasionally 4. Once in a while	C
3.	She encourages participation in extra-curricular activities  1. Often 2. Fairly often 3. Occasionally 4. Once in a while 5. Very seldom	I-S
4.	She tries out new ideas with the faculty.  1. Often 2. Fairly often 3. Occasionally 4. Once in a while 5. Very seldom	I=S
5.	She rules with an iron hand.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never	I-S
6.	She criticises poor work.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never	_I=S_
7.	She talks about how much should be done.  1. A great deal 2. Fairly much 3. To some degree 4. Comparatively little 5. Not at all	I-S
8.	She speaks in a manner not to be questioned.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never	
9.	She asks for more than members of the faculty can get done.  1. Often 2. Fairly often 3. Occasionally 4. Once in a while  5. Very seldom	_c_
10.	She helps people on the faculty with their personal problems 1. Often 2. Fairly often 3. Occasionally 4. Once in a while 5. Very seldom	c
11.	She stands up for those on the faculty, even though it makes her unpopular.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never	C
12.	She encourages slow working people on the faculty to work harder.  1. Often 2. Fairly often 3. Occasionally 4. Once in a while	I-S
13.	She waits for the faculty to push new ideas.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never	I-S
14.	She assigns faculty to particular tasks.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never	<u>I-S</u>

15.	faculty.
	1. Often 2. Fairly often 3. Occasionally 4. Once in a while 5. Very seldom
16.	She insists that everything be done her way.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never C
17.	She rejects suggestions for change.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never C
18.	She changes the duties of faculty without first talking it over with them.  1. Often 2. Fairly often 3. Occasionally 4. Once in a while 5. Very seldom
19.	She resists changes in ways of doing things  1. A great deal 2. Fairly much 3. To some degree 4. Comparatively little 5. Not at all
20.	She asks that the faculty follow to the letter those standard routines handed down to them.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never I-S
21.	She offers new approaches to problems.  1. Often 2. Fairly often 3. Occasionally 4. Once in a while 5. Very seldom  I-S
22.	She refuses to explain her actions.  1. Often 2. Fairly often 3. Occasionally 4. Once in a while 5. Very seldom
23.	She acts without consulting the faculty.  1. Often 2. Fairly often 3. Occasionally 4. Once in a while 5. Very seldom  C
24.	She backs up the faculty in their actions.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never C
25.	She is slow to accept new ideas.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never
26.	She puts the faculties welfare above the welfare of any member in it.
27.	1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never I-S  Insist that she be informed on decisions made by the faculty.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never I-S

28.	She treats all faculty as her equal.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never	C
29.	She criticises a specific act rather than a particular person.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never	C
30.	She lets others do their work the way they think best.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never	I-S
31.	She stresses being ahead of other schools.  1. A great deal 2. Fairly much 3. To some groups 4. Comparatively little 5. Not at all	_I-S_
32.	She is willing to make changes.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never	
33.	She "needles" faculty for greater effort.  1. A great deal 2. Fairly much 3. To some degree 4. Comparatively little 5. Not at all	I=S
34.	She emphasizes the meeting of deadlines.  1. A great deal 2. Fairly much 3. To some degree 4. Comparatively little 5. Not at all	I-S
35.	She puts suggestions by the faculty into operation.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never	C
36.	She decides in detail what shall be done and how it shall be done.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never	I-S
37.	She meets with the faculty at regularly scheduled times.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never	I-S
38.	She gets faculty approval on important matters before going ahead.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never	C
39.	She gives in to others in discussions with the faculty.  1. Often 2. Fairly often 3. Occasionally 4. Once in a while 5. Very seldom	e
40.	She sees to it that members of the faculty are working up to capacity.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never	I-S

### INSTRUCTIONS II

This portion of the questionaire is concerned with what you consider to be an ideal state of affairs.

Directly below each statement is a series of words numbered 1 through 5. In the space provided to the right of these words place the number, which corresponds to the word, that you feel best describes the principals' actions according to the statement given.

This section should reflect what you consider to be the actual happenings in your school at this and past points in time.

All answers will be confidential.

1.	She refuses to compromise a point.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never	<u>C</u>
2.	She does personal favors for members of the faculty.  1. Often 2. Fairly often 3. Occasionally 4. Once in a while 5. Very seldom	C
3.	She encourages participation in extra-curricular activities.  1. Often 2. Fairly often 3. Occasionally 4. Once in a while 5. Very seldom	I-S
4.	She tries out new ideas with the faculty.  1. Often 2. Fairly often 3. Occasionally 4. Once in a while 5. Very seldom	I-S
5.	She rules with an iron hand.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never	I-S
6.	She criticizes poor work.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never	I-S
7.	She talks about how much should be done.  1. A great deal 2. Fairly much 3. To some degree 4. Comparatively little 5. Not at all	I-S
8.	She speaks in a manner not to be questioned  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never	
9.	She asks for more than members of the faculty can get done.  1. Often 2. Fairly often 3. Occasionally 4. Once in a while 5. Very seldom	_c_
10.	She helps people on the faculty with their personal problems.  1. Often 2. Fairly often 3. Occasionally 4. Once in a while 5. Very seldom	_c_
11.	She stands up for those on the faculty, even though it makes her unpopular.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never	<u>C</u>
12.	She encourages slow working people on the faculty to work harder.  1. Often 2. Fairly often 3. Occasionally 4. Once in a while  5. Very seldom	_I-S
13.	She waits for the faculty to push new ideas.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never	I-S
14.	She assigns faculty to particular tasks.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never	I-S

15.	faculty.	
	<ol> <li>Often 2. Fairly often 3. Occasionally 4. Once in a while</li> <li>Very seldom</li> </ol>	I-S
16.	She insists that everything be done her way.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never	C
17.	She rejects suggestions for change.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never	C
18.	She changes the duties of faculty without first talking it over with them.  1. Often 2. Fairly often 3. Occasionally 4. Once in a while	
	5. Very seldom	<u> </u>
19.	She resists changes in ways of doing things.  1. A great deal 2. Fairly much 3. To some degree  4. Comparatively little 5. Not at all	C
20.	She asks that the faculty follow to the letter those standard routines handed down to them.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never	I-S
21.	She offers new approaches to problems.	
	<ol> <li>Often 2. Fairly often 3. Occasionally 4. Once in a while</li> <li>Very seldom</li> </ol>	<u>I-S</u>
22.	She refuses to explain her actions.  1. Often 2. Fairly often 3. Occasionally 4. Once in a while 5. Very seldom	
23.	She acts without consulting the faculty.  1. Often 2. Fairly often 3. Occasionally 4. Once in a while 5. Very seldom	C
24.	She backs up the faculty in their actions.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never	C
25.	She is slow to accept new ideas.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never	C
26.		
	in it. 1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never	I-S
27.	Insist that she be informed on decisions made by the faculty.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never	I-S

28.	She treats all faculty as her equal.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never	
29.	She criticizes a specific act rather than a particular person.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never	
30.	She lets others do their work the way they think best.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never	I-S
31.	She stresses being ahead of other schools.  1. A great deal 2. Fairly much 3. To some degree 4. Comparatively little 5. Not at all	<u>I-S</u>
32.	She is willing to make changes.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never	C
33.	She "needles" faculty for greater effort.  1. A great deal 2. Fairly much 3. To some degree  4. Comparatively little 5. Not at all	<u>I-S</u>
34.	She emphasizes the meeting of deadlines.  1. A great deal 2. Fairly much 3. To some degree  4. Comparatively little 5. Not at all	I-S
35.	She puts suggestions by the faculty into operation.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never	C
36.	She decides in detail what shall be done and how it shall be done.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never	I-S
37.	She meets with the faculty at regularly scheduled times.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never	I-S
38.	She gets faculty approval on important matters before going aheal. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never	C C
39.	She gives in to others in discussions with the faculty.  1. Often 2. Fairly often 3. Occasionally 4. Once in a while 5. Very seldom	Le C
40.	She sees to it that members of the faculty are working up to capacity.  1. Always 2. Often 3. Occasionally 4. Seldom 5. Never	I-S

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# ABSTRACT